



LAWRENCE  
LIVERMORE  
NATIONAL  
LABORATORY

# Location of High-Frequency P-wave Microseismic Noise in the Pacific Ocean Using Multiple Small Aperture Arrays

M. L. Pyle, K. D. Koper, G. G. Euler, R. Burlacu

February 12, 2015

Geophysical Research Letters

## **Disclaimer**

---

This document was prepared as an account of work sponsored by an agency of the United States government. Neither the United States government nor Lawrence Livermore National Security, LLC, nor any of their employees makes any warranty, expressed or implied, or assumes any legal liability or responsibility for the accuracy, completeness, or usefulness of any information, apparatus, product, or process disclosed, or represents that its use would not infringe privately owned rights. Reference herein to any specific commercial product, process, or service by trade name, trademark, manufacturer, or otherwise does not necessarily constitute or imply its endorsement, recommendation, or favoring by the United States government or Lawrence Livermore National Security, LLC. The views and opinions of authors expressed herein do not necessarily state or reflect those of the United States government or Lawrence Livermore National Security, LLC, and shall not be used for advertising or product endorsement purposes.

1       **Location of High-Frequency P-wave Microseismic Noise in the Pacific Ocean Using**  
2                               **Multiple Small Aperture Arrays**

3  
4       Maira L. Pyle<sup>1</sup>, Keith D. Koper<sup>2</sup>, Garrett G. Euler<sup>3</sup>, and Relu Burlacu<sup>2</sup>

5  
6  
7                               <sup>1</sup>Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory

8                                       7000 East Ave.

9                                       Livermore, CA 94550

10                                      [pyle4@llnl.gov](mailto:pyle4@llnl.gov)

11                                      925-423-3820

12  
13       <sup>2</sup>Department of Geology and Geophysics, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, UT, USA

14  
15       <sup>3</sup>Los Alamos National Laboratory, Los Alamos, NM, USA

16  
17  
18  
19       Prepared for submission to Geophysical Research Letters

20  
21                                      LLNL-JRNL-667212

22                                      LA-UR-15-21040

23

## 24   **Abstract**

25           We investigate source locations of P-wave microseisms within a narrow frequency band  
26   (0.67–1.33 Hz) that is significantly higher than the classic microseism band ( $\sim 0.05$ –0.3 Hz).  
27   Employing a back-projection method, we analyze data recorded during January 2010 from five  
28   International Monitoring System arrays that border the Pacific Ocean. We develop a ranking  
29   scheme that allows us to combine beam power from multiple arrays to obtain robust locations of  
30   the microseisms. Some individual arrays exhibit a strong regional component, but results from  
31   the combination of all arrays show high frequency P-wave energy emanating from the North  
32   Pacific basin, in general agreement with previous observations in the double-frequency (DF)  
33   microseism band ( $\sim 0.1$ –0.3 Hz). This suggests that the North Pacific source of ambient P noise  
34   is broadband and that the wave-wave interaction model invoked to explain DF microseisms is  
35   likely valid at shorter periods.

## 1. Introduction

The existence of coherent energy in the microseismic noise spectrum has been recognized for a long time [e.g., *Ebeling*, 2012], but the role of this energy in geophysical research is rapidly expanding. Applications of seismic noise are wide-ranging and include Earth imaging techniques such as velocity tomography [e.g., *Shapiro et al.*, 2005] and attenuation structure estimation [e.g., *Lawrence and Prieto*, 2011], ground motion prediction for hazard estimation [e.g., *Denolle et al.*, 2013], monitoring temporal changes in Earth structure [e.g., *Brenguier et al.*, 2008], studying historic climate and sea states [e.g., *Aster et al.*, 2008], and storm tracking [e.g., *Gerstoft et al.*, 2006]. As the uses expand, it is desirable to obtain a more complete understanding of the generation and source locations of microseisms.

Microseismic energy is strongest in the frequency band from  $\sim 0.05$ – $0.2$  Hz. Single frequency microseisms [*Hasselmann*, 1963; *Traer and Gerstoft*, 2014] have a peak at  $\sim 0.07$  Hz and travel dominantly as Rayleigh and Love waves. Double frequency (DF) microseisms are more energetic, with a peak at  $\sim 0.14$  Hz, and contain both surface and body wave components [e.g., *Haubrich and McCamy*, 1969]. DF microseisms are produced by the interaction of opposing ocean surface gravity waves, which generate pressure fluctuations that excite seismic waves at the sea floor [e.g., *Longuet-Higgins*, 1950; *Hasselmann*, 1963; *Ardhuin and Herbers*, 2013]. Microseismic surface wave energy dominates the DF frequency band, but body waves are commonly observed [e.g., *Boué et al.*, 2014; *Euler et al.*, 2014; *Gerstoft et al.*, 2006, 2008; *Koper and de Foy*, 2008; *Landès et al.*, 2010; *Obrebski et al.*, 2013; *Poli et al.*, 2012; *Roux et al.*, 2005; *Toksöz and Lacoss*, 1968; *Zhang et al.*, 2010], and recent modeling work has shown that the generation of these body waves is distinct from that of surface waves [*Ardhuin and Herbers*, 2013; *Obrebski et al.*, 2013].

Most studies of body wave DF microseisms have concentrated on the most energetic frequency range ( $\sim 0.1\text{--}0.3$  Hz) in part because the arrays used in such studies have apertures that are too large for higher frequencies to be coherent across the array. However, recent analysis at smaller aperture arrays has shown that higher frequency body wave energy can be observed globally and consistently [Koper *et al.*, 2010; Reading *et al.*, 2014; Zhang *et al.*, 2009], although the location methods at these frequencies have generally been less sophisticated than those at lower frequencies. Here we extend the investigation of the high frequency P-wave microseismic noise in the Pacific Ocean using arrays from the International Monitoring System (IMS). Figure 1 shows the location of these arrays along with previous P-wave DF microseism source locations in the North Pacific Ocean. By combining multiple arrays we obtain a robust look at high frequency noise generation in this same region.

## 2. Data

To investigate possible source locations for the high-frequency body wave noise energy, we use data from seismic array stations of the International Monitoring System (IMS) that surround the Pacific Ocean. We select five arrays (ASAR, CMAR, ILAR, KSRS, and YKA) that have previously been shown to record significant P-wave noise energy [Koper *et al.*, 2010]. Data from ASAR, ILAR, and YKA are freely available from the IRIS DMC, however, data from CMAR and KSRS are not available to the general public and only a limited dataset was available to the authors at the time of this study. As a result, we examine one month of data during January 2010 with all five arrays.

The arrays consist of 15 to 21 short period, vertical component seismometers with apertures ranging from  $\sim 10\text{--}25$  km (Figure 1). The small aperture of the arrays allows for the

coherency of high frequency signals at all components. Array response functions indicate that the best resolution corresponds to the frequency band of  $\sim 0.33$ -1.33 Hz (Figure S1). At lower frequencies, the size of the central lobe increases, making it more difficult to distinguish between lower apparent velocities of surface waves and higher velocities expected for body waves. At higher frequencies, the central lobe becomes tighter with better distinction of high apparent velocities, but grating lobes become stronger making analysis increasingly difficult. We select the 0.67–1.33 Hz band to consider high frequency energy while staying within the optimal resolution capabilities of the arrays.

### 3. Methods

#### 3.1 Microseismic energy back-projection

We apply a back-projection method similar to that used for rupture imaging by *Xu et al.* [2009] to perform a grid search for possible source locations. Data from each array are back-projected through a reference 1D velocity model to points on a grid within the distance range of  $0^\circ$ – $105^\circ$ , allowing for the propagation of both regional and teleseismic P-waves, but excluding core-diffracted and core-traversing phases. Each array is processed independently, but we use a common, global grid of points so that the arrays can later be combined. Grid spacing is approximately 200 km (Figure S2). For any beam, we require that at least 75% of the array stations have returned data, in order to prevent bias from grid points and time windows using only a small fraction of the stations. We do not explicitly remove earthquakes from the data; however, we find back-projected energy generally concentrates away from the earthquake-prone areas, indicating that our results are primarily sensitive to coherent microseismic signals and not to earthquakes.

The data are processed in hour-long segments. We remove the mean and trend and filter each trace from 0.67–1.33 Hz. For each assumed source time and grid point, we cut a 10-second time window from each array component corresponding to the P-wave arrival time predicted by ak135 [Kennett *et al.*, 1995]. Windows are normalized and tapered so that power is based more on coherency than amplitude. We form 4<sup>th</sup> root beams [e.g., Muirhead and Datt, 1976], which mitigates the effects of anomalous individual waveforms and enhances coherent energy, and measure the beam power in a root-mean-square sense. Beam power is calculated at every point on the grid within the appropriate distance range, and the process is repeated for the next source time. We assume a new time source every 5 seconds and use 10-second windows to capture as many potential sources of coherent energy as possible. The 50% overlap helps to account for the window tapers. We note that even with drastically different time windows (for example, 10 minutes instead of 10 seconds) we obtain similar results, suggesting that the P-wave microseismic noise field is quite stationary.

### **3.2 Array combination**

Once beam powers have been calculated for individual arrays, we seek to average the results from all arrays to obtain better constraints on source locations; however, the combination of multiple arrays is not straightforward due to large variations in maximum powers and the range of power among the arrays, as well as differing array responses. If a simple average of the powers from all arrays is performed, the array with the highest power dominates the average. Figure 2a shows the maximum powers during a quiet hour for all of the individual arrays, as well as the maximum average power in each window obtained by calculating the mean over the entire grid from all five arrays. In this case, the average power is nearly indistinguishable from the power at ILAR. Linear normalization techniques preserve this discrepancy.



In order to weight all arrays equally, we invoke a simple ranking scheme, where the grid point with the highest power in each window is assigned the rank of one, the grid point with the second highest power is assigned the rank of two, and so on. With this system, the ranks from individual arrays can be averaged at each grid point so that all arrays have equal weight. Figure 2b plots the same maximum powers as Figure 2a, but with the maximum average power replaced by the maximum average rank-power, showing that the rank-power average more equally balances contributions from all array stations. To combine the arrays for a single time window, we average the ranks from every point on the global grid first, and then consider the average values at only the grid points that are within joint coverage of all arrays.

To demonstrate that the ranking method is effective, we locate a known coherent event—a 5.2  $M_w$  earthquake that occurred on January 3, 2010 in the Santa Cruz Islands. Figure 2c-e shows the maximum power and corresponding locations from a single array (ILAR), the averaged powers, and the averaged rank-powers. A single array suffers from a trade-off between distance and origin time. If the origin time is known, the event is well located by the single array, but if there is uncertainty in the origin time then only the azimuth is well constrained. Using the average of the array powers the event is properly located, but with a broader peak and greater uncertainty. The maximum average power also closely mirrors the single array power, once again showing the dominance of a single array with this method. The maximum average rank-power has a much smaller, tighter peak and identifies the event location well in space and time without being overly biased by a single array, demonstrating its effectiveness.

### **3.3 Source modeling**

Frameworks for the modeling of microseismic energy generation in the double frequency band have been previously developed [Longuet-Higgins, 1950; Hasselmann, 1963; Ardhuin et

151 *al.*, 2011; *Ardhuin and Herbers*, 2013; *Traer and Gerstoft*, 2014]. In general, the two main  
152 factors in the excitation of this energy are the effective pressure perturbation at the ocean surface  
153 generated by wave-wave interactions, and an amplification coefficient that mediates the  
154 translation of the ocean surface pressure into ground displacement. The ocean surface pressure  
155 is a function of the wave frequency spectrum and the directional energy spectrum. Although  
156 *Ardhuin et al.* [2011] point out that significant wave height does not have direct relationship with  
157 seismic noise sources due to the absence of the directional energy component, we note that when  
158 averaged over long periods of time, the sea state becomes uniform enough directionally and  
159 spatially that the wave-wave interaction is essentially smoothed to an approximation of the  
160 significant wave height [*Euler et al.*, 2014]. With this consideration in mind, we suggest that the  
161 significant wave height is a reasonable approximation for the wave-wave interactions averaged  
162 over an entire month for our high frequency band of interest (Figure 3a).

163 The amplification coefficient is primarily a function of frequency and water depth [e.g.,  
164 *Longuet-Higgins*, 1950; *Ardhuin and Herbers*, 2013; *Gualtieri et al.*, 2014]. *Gualtieri et al.*,  
165 [2014] demonstrated that this coefficient is distinct for body waves and surface waves, and we  
166 use their P-wave formulation along with bathymetry and crustal velocities from Crust1.0 [*Laske*  
167 *et al.*, 2013] to determine the values in our frequency range of interest (Figure 3b). Interestingly,  
168 the high frequency coefficients are fairly uniform and much smoother geographically than those  
169 for DF microseism frequencies (Figure 3c). Thus, we interpret our seismic energy back-  
170 projection results mainly in terms of the significant wave height.

#### 171 172 **4. Results**

We plot the back-projection results from individual arrays as maps of the average rank-powers and histograms of the maximum power locations in Figure 4. Average power maps are constructed by averaging the rank at each grid point over every window for the entire month of January 2010. Using the average ranks at individual arrays produces nearly identical results to maps constructed using median powers at each grid point, and is more computationally efficient given the number of time windows and grid points over which we average. This method is a way of de-emphasizing outliers, thus damping the effect of transient signals from earthquakes. Histograms are constructed by counting the number of times each grid point registered as a window's maximum power for all time windows in the month.

YKA and ILAR are situated near previously located lower-frequency DF microseism sources in the North Pacific (Figure 1) [e.g., *Landès et al.*, 2010; *Obrebski et al.*, 2013; *Zhang et al.*, 2010] and show great similarity in their results. Both exhibit strong energy to the southwest, with maximum powers most often concentrated in the north-central Pacific between  $\sim 38^{\circ}$ – $53^{\circ}$ N latitude, overlapping areas of high significant wave height. YKA's maximum power locations are more diffuse and extend further to the west compared to those of ILAR, but this may be due in part to stronger slowness biases at ILAR [*Bondar et al.*, 1999]. Additionally, the YKA results exhibit strong power in the northern Atlantic, which is not apparent at ILAR, but again overlaps with high significant wave heights in the North Atlantic Ocean and is a region known to generate P-wave microseisms at longer DF periods [e.g., *Euler et al.*, 2014; *Landès et al.*, 2010; *Stutzmann et al.*, 2012].

The dominant energy at ASAR is to the south of the array and along the Southern Ocean, where significant wave heights in the southern hemisphere are the highest. Maximum powers are located most often very near the Great Australian Bight in the south central part of the

continent, which has previously been identified as a significant source of short-period seismic noise in data recorded at the Warramunga Array (WRA) in north-central Australia [Reading *et al.*, 2014]. The coupling of high significant wave heights and high amplification coefficients near the coasts of Australia and Antarctica, suggests there is significant regional P-wave microseism generation at this location and is in agreement with our observations.

Like ASAR, the results from KSRS display dominance from regional microseisms, where maximum powers fall almost exclusively in the Sea of Japan. The consistency and longevity of the power locations indicate this is an area of strong microseism generation. The strongest average powers for KSRS are also mostly regional, but they extend to the east of Japan and, to a lesser extent, along the north Pacific basin where the maximum powers of YKA and CMAR locate. CMAR's strongest energy projects to the eastern portion of its coverage area, overlapping much of the high power region displayed by ILAR and YKA. Substantial energy also projects to portions of the Southern Ocean, in agreement with ASAR's locations of strongest power. Maximum powers at CMAR most often plot in the south Pacific near the Philippines and Indonesia, another likely area of regional microseism generation. However, the hit count for CMAR is lower than at most of the other arrays indicating that the maximum power locations occur frequently throughout a wide area of the Pacific.

When the rank-powers from all five arrays are combined, strong energy covers the northern Pacific basin from approximately 15°–45°N latitude (Figure 5a), consistent with the locations of the highest significant wave heights during the same time period (Figure 3a). We observe very little energy on the Asian landmass, reinforcing the idea that transient signals from earthquakes are not biasing our results. The locations with strongest energy are shown by the histogram in Figure 5b. The maximum energy is concentrated in a smaller area from ~30°–45°N

latitude and  $\sim 180^{\circ}$ – $200^{\circ}$ E longitude. We note that using subsets of only 3 arrays yields similar results. Averaging ranks from ASAR, KSRS, and CMAR, for example, still yields strong energy in the northern Pacific with roughly the same location as the strongest energy exhibited by all five arrays, despite the fact that this energy is less dominant at any one of these arrays individually. Because excluding any one or two arrays does not dramatically increase the coverage area in the Pacific, and a better location is obtained with more stations, we include here only the results from the combination of all five arrays.

## 5. Discussion and Conclusions

The strong high-frequency P-wave microseism source in the North Pacific Ocean that we detect from the combined arrays shows good agreement with the study by *Koper et al.* [2010] that overlapped backazimuth directions from three arrays to triangulate a source location for their observed P-wave energy. Although they used a simpler methodology, we see a similar area of maximum energy generation. Our results are also in good agreement with P-wave sources seen at lower, DF, frequencies using larger aperture arrays [*Gerstoft et al.*, 2008; *Landès et al.*, 2010; *Zhang et al.*, 2010], and, as Figure 5 shows, individual P-wave noise sources that have been located and found to follow storm tracks in the Pacific Ocean [*Obrebski et al.*, 2013]. The broad region of high energy that we see and the relative uniformity of the amplification coefficients at higher frequencies (Figure 3) suggest that the areas over which high frequency microseisms are generated may be more diffuse than at lower frequencies.

The strong regional P-wave microseism observations at ASAR and KSRS are similar to work by *Zhang et al.* [2009], which found that the high-frequency body wave microseisms they observed were correlated to nearby offshore wind speed. Others have also noted that at

frequencies above 0.2 Hz, strong correlations exist between microseismic energy and local wind profiles [e.g., *Bromirski et al.*, 2005; *Hillers and Ben-Zion*, 2011], and due to short path lengths and less attenuation, this energy may comprise a significant component of the microseism spectra at coastal arrays. However, the ability to elucidate the North Pacific source using multiple arrays at large distances suggests that this source may be the site of stronger microseism generation than any of the regional locations. The dominance of the Northern Pacific source at ILAR over nearby likely locations of regional energy also supports the conclusion that the North Pacific source is very powerful.

Despite the dominant power in the DF microseismic band between 0.1–0.3 Hz, there is a clear component of persistent, coherent P-wave microseismic energy in the higher (0.67–1.33 Hz) frequency band. The location in the North Pacific Ocean that we find from the rank combination method shows striking similarity to the locations of lower-frequency sources, and interestingly, even very long period surface waves from the Earth’s hum [*Rhie and Romanowicz*, 2006]. Both high- and low-frequency sources are adequately explained by the mechanism proposed by *Longuet-Higgins* [1950], and extended to shorter periods by *Webb and Cox* [1986], suggesting that wave-wave interactions are a significant source of seismic energy that is quite broadband in nature.

## Acknowledgments

Seismic data from ASAR, ILAR, and YKA are freely available through the IRIS DMC. Data from CMAR and KSRS are from the NEIC and international agreements prohibit their public release. Data for Figure 3a are available from the IFREMER ([French Research Institute for Exploitation of the Sea](http://tinyurl.com/iowagaftp/iowaga/SISMO)) ftp site (<http://tinyurl.com/iowagaftp/iowaga/SISMO>). This research was supported by the US National Science Foundation under grants EAR-0848132 and EAR-0951558. Additional work was performed at Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory under award number DE-AC52-06NA25946 and at Los Alamos National Laboratory under DE-AC52-06NA25396. Figures were made using Generic Mapping Tools (GMT) [*Wessel and Smith, 1991*].

Prepared by LLNL under Contract DE-AC52-07NA27344

## References

- Ardhuin, F., E. Stutzmann, M. Schimmel, and A. Mangeney (2011), Ocean wave sources of seismic noise, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *116*, C09004, doi:10.1029/2011JC006952.
- Ardhuin, F., and T. H. C. Herbers (2013), Noise generation in the solid Earth, oceans and atmosphere, from nonlinear interacting surface gravity waves in finite depth, *J. Fluid. Mech.*, *716*, 316-348, doi:10.1017/jfm.2012.548.
- Aster, R. C., D. E. McNamara, and P. D. Bromirski (2008), Multidecadal climate-induced variability in microseisms, *Seismol. Res. Lett.*, *79*(2), 194-202, doi:10.1785/gssrl.79.2.194.
- Bondar, I., R. G. North, and G. Beall (1999), Teleseismic slowness-azimuth station corrections for the International Monitoring System seismic network, *Bull. Seismol. Soc. Am.*, *89*, 989-1003.
- Boué, P., P. Poli, M. Campillo, and P. Roux (2014), Reverberations, coda waves and ambient noise: Correlations at the global scale and retrieval of the deep phases, *Earth Planet. Sci. Lett.*, *391*, 137-145, doi:10.1016/j.epsl.2014.01.047.
- Brenguier, F., M. Campillo, C. Hadziioannou, N. M. Shapiro, R. M. Nadeau, and E. Larose (2008), Postseismic relaxation along the San Andres Fault at Parkfield from continuous seismological observations, *Science*, *321*, 1478-1481, doi:10.1126/science.1160943.
- Bromirski, P. D., F. K. Duennebier, and R. A. Stephen (2005), Mid-ocean microseisms, *Geochem. Geophys. Geosyst.*, *6*(4), Q04009, doi:10.1029/2004GC000768.
- Denolle, M. A., E. M. Dunham, G. A. Prieto, and G. C. Beroza (2013), Ground motion prediction of realistic earthquake sources using the ambient seismic field, *J. Geophys. Res. Solid Earth*, *118*, doi:10.1029/2012JB009603.



293 Ebeling, C. W. (2012), Inferring ocean storm characteristics from ambient seismic noise: A  
294 historical perspective, *Adv. Geophys.*, 53, 1-33.

295 Euler, G. G., D. A. Wiens, and A. A. Nyblade (2014), Evidence for bathymetric control on the  
296 distribution of body wave microseism sources from temporary seismic arrays in Africa,  
297 *Geophys. J. Int.*, 197, 1869-1883, doi:10.1093/gji/ggu105.

298 Gerstoft, P., M. C. Fehler, and K. G. Sabra (2006), When Katrina hit California, *Geophys. Res.*  
299 *Lett.*, 33, L17308, doi:10.1029/2006GL027270.

300 Gerstoft, P., P. M. Shearer, N. Harmon, and J. Zhang (2008), Global P, PP, and PKP wave  
301 microseisms observed from distant storms, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 35, L23306,  
302 doi:10.1029/2008GL036111.

303 Gualtieri, L., E. Stutzmann, V. Farra, Y. Capdeville, M. Schimmel, F. Ardhuin, and A. Morelli  
304 (2014), Modelling the ocean site effect on seismic noise body waves, *Geophys. J. Int.*,  
305 197(2), 1096-1106, doi:10.1093/gji/ggu042

306 Hasselmann, K. (1963), A statistical analysis of the generation of microseisms, *Rev. Geophys.*,  
307 1(2), 177-210.

308 Haubrich, F. A., and K. McCamy (1969), Microseisms: coastal and pelagic sources, *Rev.*  
309 *Geophys.*, 7(3), 539-571.

310 Hillers, G. and Y. Ben-Zion (2011), Seasonal variations of observed noise amplitudes at 2-18 Hz  
311 in southern California, *Geophys. J. Int.*, 184(2), 860-868, doi:10.1111/j.1365-  
312 246X.2010.04886.x

313 Kennett, B. L., E. R. Engdahl, and R. Buland (1995), Constraints on seismic velocities in the  
314 Earth from travel times, *Geophys. J. Int.*, 122, 108-124.

315 Koper, K. D., and B. de Foy (2008), Seasonal anisotropy in short-period seismic noise recorded  
316 in South Asia, *Bull. Seismol. Soc. Am.*, *98*(6), 3033-3045, doi:10.1785/0120080082.

317 Koper, K. D., K. Seats, and H. Benz (2010), On the composition of Earth's short-period seismic  
318 noise field, *Bull. Seismol. Soc. Am.*, *100*(2), 606-617, doi:10.1785/0120090120.

319 Landès, M., F. Hubans, N. M. Shapiro, A. Paul, and M. Campillo (2010), Origin of deep ocean  
320 microseisms by using teleseismic body waves, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *115*, B05302,  
321 doi:10.1029/2009JB006918.

322 Laske, G., G. Masters, Z. Ma, and M. Pasayanos (2013), Update on CRUST1.0: a 1-degree  
323 global model of Earth's crust, *Geophys. Res. Abstr.*, *15*, Abstract EGU2013-2658.

324 Lawrence, J. F., and G. A. Prieto (2011), Attenuation tomography of the Western United States  
325 from ambient seismic noise, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *116*, B06302, doi:10.1029/2010JB007836.

326 Longuet-Higgins, M. S. (1950), A theory of the origin of microseisms, *Phil. Trans. R. Soc. Lond.*  
327 *A*, *243*(857), 1-35.

328 Muirhead, K. J., and R. Datt (1976), The Nth root process applied to seismic array data,  
329 *Geophys. J. R. Astr. Soc.*, *47*, 197-210.

330 Obrebski, M., F. Arduin, E. Stutzmann, and M. Schimmel (2013), Detection of microseismic  
331 compressional (P) body waves aided by numerical modeling of oceanic noise sources, *J.*  
332 *Geophys. Res. Solid Earth*, *118*, doi:10.1002/jgrb.50233.

333 Poli, P., M. Campillo, H. Pedersen, and LAPNET Working Group (2012), Body-wave imaging  
334 of Earth's mantle discontinuities from ambient seismic noise, *Science*, *338*(6110), 1063-  
335 1065, doi:10.1126/science.1228194.

336 Reading, A. M., K. D. Koper, M. Gal, L. S. Graham, H. Tkalčić, and M. A. Hemer (2014),  
337 Dominant seismic noise sources in the Southern Ocean and West Pacific, 2000-2012,

338 recorded at the Warramunga Seismic Array, Australia, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, *41*,  
 339 doi:10.1002/2014GL060073.

340 Rhie, J. and B. Romanowicz (2006), A study of the relation between ocean storms and the  
 341 Earth's hum, *Geochem, Geophys, Geosyst.*, *7*, Q10004, doi:10.1029/2006GC001274.

342 Roux, P., K. G. Sabra, P. Gerstoft, and W. A. Kuperman, (2005), P-waves from cross-correlation  
 343 of seismic noise, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, *32*, L19303, doi:10.1029/2005GL023803.

344 Shapiro, N. M., M. Campillo, L. Stehly, and M. H. Ritzwoller (2005), High-resolution surface-  
 345 wave tomography from ambient seismic noise, *Science*, *307*, 1615-1618.

346 Stutzmann, E., F. Ardhuin, M. Schimmel, A. Mangeney, and G. Patau (2012), Modeling long-  
 347 term seismic noise in various environments, *Geophys. J. Int.*, doi:10.1111/j.1365-  
 348 246X.2012.05638.x

349 Toksöz, M. N., and R. T. Lacoss (1968), Microseisms: Mode structure and sources, *Science*, *159*,  
 350 872-873.

351 Tolman, H. L. (2008), A mosaic approach to wind wave modeling, *Ocean Modell.*, *25*, 35-47.

352 Traer, J. and P. Gerstoft (2014), A unified theory of microseisms and hum, *J. Geophys. Res.*  
 353 *Solid Earth*, *119*, doi:10.1002/2013JB010504.

354 Webb, S. C., and C. S. Cox (1986), Observations and modeling of seafloor microseisms, *J.*  
 355 *Geophys. Res.*, *91*, 7343-7358.

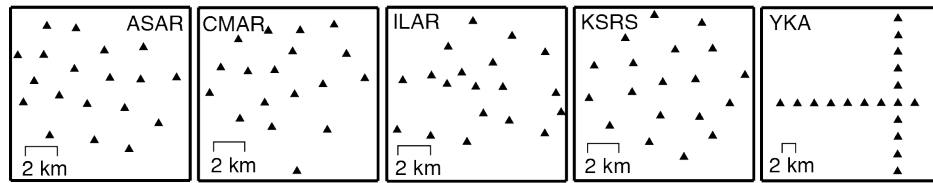
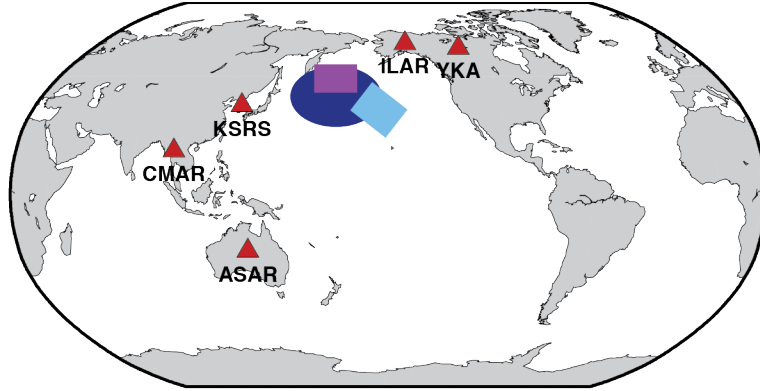
356 Wessel, P., and W. H. F. Smith (1991), Free software helps map and display data, *EOS Trans.*  
 357 *AGU*, *72*, 441, 445-446, doi:10.1029/90EO00319.

358 Xu, Y., K. D. Koper, O. Sufri, L. Zhu, and A. R. Hutko (2009), Rupture imaging of the  $M_w$  7.9  
 359 12 May 2008 Wenchuan earthquake from back projection of teleseismic P waves, *Geochem.*  
 360 *Geophys. Geosyst.*, *10*, Q04006, doi:10.1029/2008GC002335.

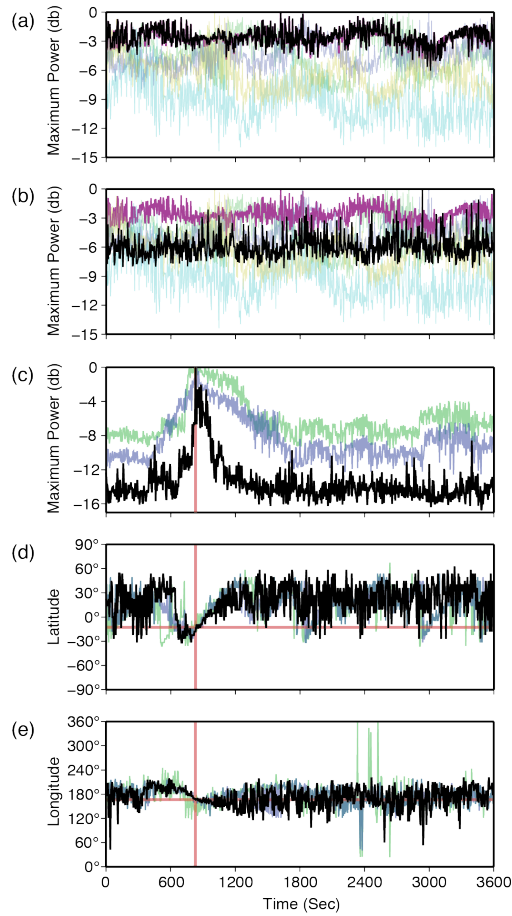
361 Zhang, J., P. Gerstoft, and P. M. Shearer (2009), High-frequency P-wave seismic noise driven by  
362 ocean winds, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, *36*, L09302, doi:10.1029/2009GL037761.

363 Zhang, J., P. Gerstoft, and P. D. Bromirski (2010), Pelagic and coastal sources of P-wave  
364 microseisms: Generation under tropical cyclones, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, *37*, L15301,  
365 doi:10.1029/2010GL044288.

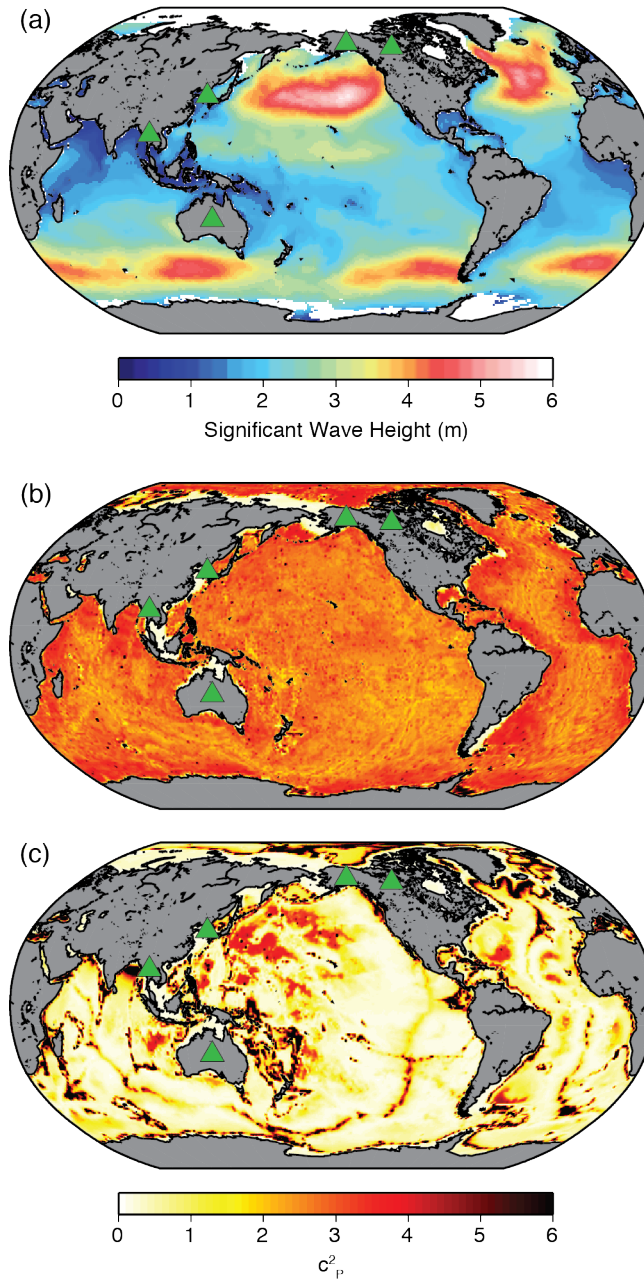
366



**Figure 1.** Location of IMS arrays used in this study. Bottom panels show individual array configurations. Colored symbols show locations of previous DF microseism generation locations in the North Pacific. Dark blue patch is from *Zhang et al.* [2010] (their Figure 4a), purple is from *Landès et al.* [2010] (Figure 9b), and light blue is from *Koper et al.* [2010] (Figure 8).



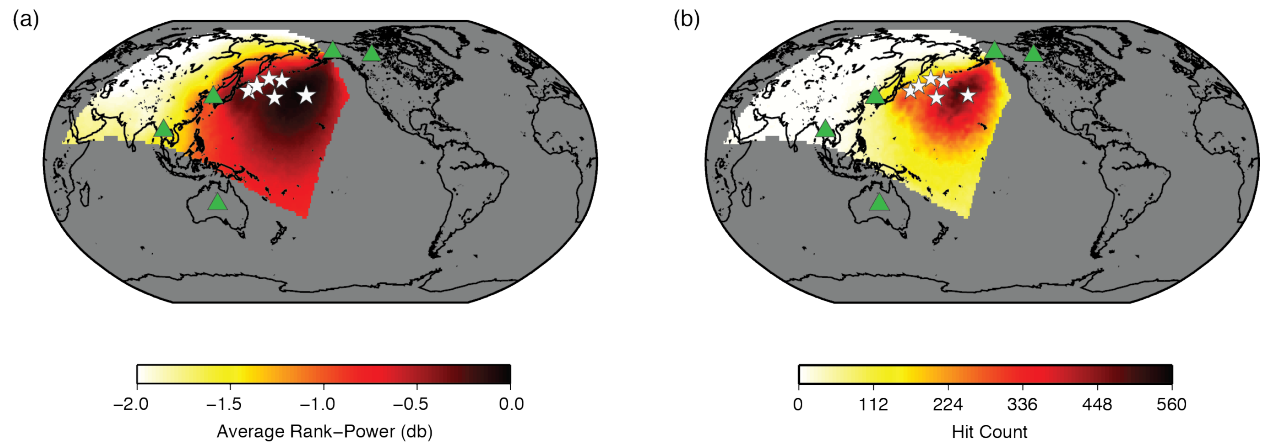
**Figure 2.** Comparison of array combination from power averaging versus rank-power averaging. (a) Individual array powers and averaged power (black) for a quiet hour with no earthquakes on January 6, 2010, 08:00. (b) Same as (a) but with the rank-power average plotted in black. In (a) and (b) the individual array station ILAR is plotted in purple. (c) Comparison of rank-power average (black) to power average (blue) and power from ILAR (green) for a 5.2  $M_w$  event in the Santa Cruz Islands on January 3, 2010, 15:13. Latitude and longitude associated with each power measurement are plotted in (d) and (e) respectively. Red lines show time and location of the event, as reported in the NEIC PDE catalog. The rank-power average removes dominance by a single array while still providing excellent locations in space and time.



**Figure 3.** (a) Map of the median significant wave height for the month of January 2010 based on the WAVEWATCH III<sup>®</sup> model [Tolman, 2008]. (b) and (c) Average P-wave amplification coefficients [Gualtieri et al., 2014] at frequencies of (b) 0.67–1.33 Hz, and (c) 0.135–0.2 Hz.







**Figure 5.** (a) Average rank-power and (b) maximum power histogram maps for the combination of all five arrays. Combination of arrays is performed using the ranking scheme described in the text. White stars mark the locations of noise sources in the double-frequency band (0.193 Hz) located during the same time period, January 2010, by *Obrebski et al.* [2013].